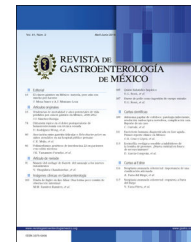




REVISTA DE GASTROENTEROLOGÍA DE MÉXICO

www.elsevier.es/rgmx



ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Clostridioides difficile-associated diarrhea in surgical service patients in Mexico[☆]



R. Morfín-Otero^{a,b}, S. Petersen-Morfín^a, S.A. Aguirre-Díaz^a, H.R. Pérez-Gómez^a,
E. Garza-González^c, E. González-Díaz^a, S. Esparza-Ahumada^a,
J.A. Velarde-Ruiz Velasco^{d,*}, G. León-Garnica^a, R. Escobedo-Sánchez^a,
E. Rodríguez-Noriega^a

^a Servicio de Infectología, Hospital Civil de Guadalajara Fray Antonio Alcalde, Guadalajara, Jalisco, Mexico

^b Instituto de Patología Infecciosa y Experimental, Centro Universitario de Ciencias de la Salud, Universidad de Guadalajara, Guadalajara, Jalisco, Mexico

^c Departamento de Gastroenterología, Hospital Universitario Dr. José Eleuterio González, Universidad Autónoma de Nuevo León, Monterrey, Nuevo León, Mexico

^d Servicio de Gastroenterología, Hospital Civil de Guadalajara Fray Antonio Alcalde, Guadalajara, Jalisco, Mexico

Received 8 September 2018; accepted 27 May 2019

Available online 26 September 2019

KEYWORDS

Diarrhea;
Clostridium difficile;
Healthcare-
Associated infections;
Infections in surgery

Abstract

Introduction: *Clostridium difficile* is the first cause of healthcare-associated diarrhea in developed countries. In recent years the incidence of *C. difficile* infection (CDI) has increased worldwide. There is not much information on the topic in Mexico, and little is known about the risk factors for the infection in patients that are hospitalized in surgical services.

Materials and methods: A case-control study was conducted that compared the epidemiologic findings and risk factors between surgical patients with PCR-confirmed CDI, surgical patients with diarrhea and a negative PCR test, and surgical patients with no diarrhea. The statistical analysis was carried out using the SPSS version 22.0 program.

Results: The majority of the surgical patients with CDI belonged to the areas of neurosurgery, cardiac surgery, orthopedics, and general surgery. A total of 53% of the CDI cases were associated with the hypervirulent CD NAP1/027 strain. The presence of mucus in stools (OR: 1.5, $p=0.001$), fever (OR: 1.4, $p=0.011$), leukocytes in stools (OR: 3.2, $p<0.001$), hospitalization within the past twelve weeks (OR: 2.0, $p<0.001$), antibiotic use (OR: 1.3, $p=0.023$), and ceftriaxone use (OR: 1.4, $p=0.01$) were independent risk factors for the development of CDI.

[☆] Please cite this article as: Morfín-Otero R, Petersen-Morfín S, Aguirre-Díaz SA, Pérez-Gómez HR, Garza-González E, González-Díaz E, et al. Diarrea asociada a *Clostridioides difficile* en pacientes de servicios quirúrgicos en México. Revista de Gastroenterología de México. 2019. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.rgmx.2019.05.003>

* Corresponding author: Calle Mariano Bárcenas 1164, Colonia. Miraflores, C.P 44260. Guadalajara, Jal. Mexico. Tel.: +3312228507. E-mail address: velardemd@yahoo.com.mx (J.A. Velarde-Ruiz Velasco).

PALABRAS CLAVE

Diarrea;
Clostridium difficile;
infecciones asociadas
al cuidado de salud;
Infecciones en cirugía

Conclusions: *C. difficile*-induced diarrhea in the surgical services is frequent at the *Hospital Civil de Guadalajara "Fray Antonio Alcalde"*.

© 2019 Asociación Mexicana de Gastroenterología. Published by Masson Doyma México S.A. This is an open access article under the CC BY-NC-ND license (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

Resumen

Introducción: *Clostridium difficile* (CD) es la primera causa de diarrea asociada al cuidado de salud en los países desarrollados. En los últimos años, la incidencia de la infección asociada a *C. difficile* (ICD) ha aumentado en el ámbito mundial. En México, la información al respecto es escasa, y se conoce poco sobre los factores de riesgo para esta enfermedad en pacientes hospitalizados en servicios quirúrgicos.

Material y métodos: Estudio de casos y controles. Se compararon hallazgos epidemiológicos y factores de riesgo entre pacientes quirúrgicos con ICD confirmada por PCR contra pacientes quirúrgicos con diarrea PCR negativa y contra pacientes quirúrgicos sin diarrea. Se realizó análisis estadístico mediante el paquete estadístico SPSS versión 22.0.

Resultados: La mayoría de los pacientes quirúrgicos con ICD correspondían a las áreas de neurocirugía, cardiocirugía, ortopedia y cirugía general. El 53% de los casos de ICD se asociaron a la cepa hipervirulenta de CD NAP1/027. La presencia de moco en heces (RM 1.5, $p=0.001$), fiebre (RM 1.4, $p=0.011$), leucocitos en heces (RM 3.2, $p<0.001$), hospitalización en las últimas doce semanas (RM 2.0, $p<0.001$), uso de antibióticos (RM 1.3, $p=0.023$) y uso de ceftriaxona (RM 1.4, $p=0.01$) constituyeron factores de riesgo independientes para el desarrollo de ICD.

Conclusiones: La diarrea por CD en servicios quirúrgicos es frecuente en nuestra institución (*Hospital Civil de Guadalajara "Fray Antonio Alcalde"*).

© 2019 Asociación Mexicana de Gastroenterología. Publicado por Masson Doyma México S.A. Este es un artículo Open Access bajo la licencia CC BY-NC-ND (<http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-nd/4.0/>).

Introduction and aims

Clostridioides difficile infection (CDI) is the main cause of healthcare-associated diarrhea and is the most frequent cause in certain countries.¹

In a 1986 case-control study, the authors reported that 87% of CDIs were hospital-acquired, and 75% of them were in patients in the surgical services. The risk factors included having a previous infection, multiple antibiotic use, especially clindamycin, prior to the appearance of CDI, and prolonged hospitalization.² Olson et al. reported that approximately half of the patients with CDI belonged to a surgical service.³

In recent years, different researchers on surgery described the presence of CDI in surgical patients after colorectal resection (2.2%), with important variations between different surgeons and hospitals,⁴ reporting an incidence of 1.8% after ileostomy.⁵

The burden of CDI in surgery has been reported in different countries: 21,371 general surgery patients (0.47%) in the United Kingdom; 19 out of 4,720 patients (0.4%) in Korea; 143,652 surgical procedures (0.28%) in Japan; and 2,581 out of 349,122 patients (0.75%) in the United States, as well as 35,363 patients (0.51%) after 40 types of surgery in 52 hospitals.^{6–10}

The real burden of CDI in hospital surgical areas is not specifically described in the majority of reports published on *C. difficile*, but that does not mean those patients were not affected by the pathology.

In the relation between prophylactic antibiotic administration in surgical patients to its association as a risk factor for developing CDI, there is also an increased risk for infection due to the hypervirulent *C. difficile* NAP1/027 strain.^{11,12}

Aim

The aim of the present study was to analyze the risk factors for acquiring CDI in patients hospitalized in the surgical services at the *Hospital Civil de Guadalajara Fray Antonio Alcalde*.

Materials and methods**Study site**

The present study was conducted at the *Hospital Civil de Guadalajara Fray Antonio Alcalde*, a tertiary care university hospital with 890 long-stay hospital beds, located in Guadalajara, Jalisco.

Study design

The case-control study was carried out within the time frame of December 2013 to September 2016. A prospective follow-up was conducted on all cases of diarrhea found at our hospital. The study focused on patients in the surgical wards,

Table 1 Surgical service distribution of the cases and controls.

	CDI		Diarrhea and negative PCR (controls-1)		No diarrhea (controls-2)	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Neurosurgery	41	33.4	113	37.5	74	29.6
Cardiac surgery	23	18.7	25	8.3	37	14.8
Orthopedics	19	15.4	43	14.3	61	24.4
General surgery	19	15.4	74	24.6	43	17.2
Urology	8	6.5	7	2.3	8	3.2
Plastic surgery	4	3.3	7	2.3	2	0.8
Transplantation	4	3.3	22	7.3	3	1.2
Coloproctology	3	2.4	2	0.7	9	3.6
Ophthalmology	1	0.8	0	0	1	0.4
Oncosurgery	1	0.8	3	1	5	2
Gynecology	0	0	5	1.7	5	2
Otorhinolaryngology	0	0	0	0	2	0.8

identifying the study subjects as surgical cases with diarrhea and a positive PCR test for *C. difficile* (Cepheid Xpert *C. difficile*/Epi Cepheid, Sunnyvale CA), surgical cases with diarrhea and a negative PCR test (controls-1), and surgical cases with no diarrhea that were in the same wards for the same period of time (controls-2). Demographic, epidemiologic, and clinical data were obtained. The study was approved by the Research and Ethics Committee of the Hospital Civil de Guadalajara. All patients signed statements of informed consent that were authorized by the Ethics Committee.

Definitions

Healthcare-associated diarrhea was defined by the presence of stools with a consistency matching the Bristol scale type 5 to 7, with 3 or more bowel movements in 24 h, after 48 h of hospital admission (Mexican Official Norm NOM-017-SSA2-2012, for epidemiologic surveillance). CDI was defined as healthcare-associated diarrhea with a positive PCR analysis for *C. difficile*.

Statistical analysis

Specific univariate descriptive statistics for the surgical services were carried out, including the epidemiologic and clinical characteristics of the study population. The dichotomous variables were expressed as frequencies and percentages, and the quantitative variables as medians and ranges. The bivariate comparison analysis between groups was performed using the chi-square test for the qualitative variables and the Mann-Whitney U test for the quantitative variables. The risk factors were determined by submitting the variables with a probability of 0.20 or lower, which were then adjusted to a linear regression model. The SPSS version 22.0 was utilized to carry out the statistical analysis and statistical significance was set at a $p < 0.05$.

Ethical considerations

The present study was approved by the Research and Ethics Committee of the Hospital Civil de Guadalajara. All patients signed statements of informed consent and patient data remained confidential and anonymous, following the protocols of our work center.

Results

The majority of the 123 surgical cases with CDI were in the services of neurosurgery, cardiac surgery, orthopedics, and general surgery. Eighty-five percent of all the surgical cases in those services were registered with diarrhea and negative PCR testing, and 86% were registered with no diarrhea (Table 1).

A total of 123 surgical cases with CDI were detected, along with 301 surgical cases with diarrhea and a negative PCR analysis, and 255 surgical cases with no diarrhea (Table 2). The presence of leukocytes ($\geq 12,000$ cell/mm³), albumin (under 3 g/dl), hospitalization (more than 7 days), hospitalization within the last 12 weeks, immunosuppressant use, antibiotic use, and meropenem and fluconazole use were more frequent in surgical patients with CDI than in surgical patients with no diarrhea ($p < 0.001$). In addition, the presence of leukocytes in stools was more frequent in surgical patients with CDI than in surgical patients with diarrhea and a negative PCR test ($p < 0.001$) (Table 2).

Surgical patients with CDI with the *C. difficile* NAP1/027 strain had higher levels of bloody stools ($p = 0.042$) and greater use of immunosuppressants ($p = 0.021$) and amikacin ($p = 0.035$) than the surgical patients infected with other *C. difficile* ribotypes (Table 3).

In the multivariate analysis, the presence of mucus in stools ($p = 0.001$), fever ($p = 0.011$), leukocytes in stools ($p < 0.001$), hospitalization within the past 12 weeks ($p < 0.001$), antibiotic use ($p = 0.023$), and ceftriaxone use ($p = 0.01$) were independent risk factors for developing CDI. Tigecycline use was greater in the surgical controls with diarrhea and a negative PCR analysis ($p = 0.011$) (Table 4).

Table 2 Demographic and clinical characteristics of the cases and controls.

Variable	Surgical patients with CDI (n = 123)	Surgical patients with diarrhea and negative PCR (controls-1) (n = 301)	p	Surgical patients with no diarrhea (controls-2) (n = 250)	p
<i>Demographic characteristics</i>					
Median age (range)	45 (15-83)	45 (15-93)	0.768	45 (15-94)	0.994
Male, n (%)	91 (74)	212 (70.4)	0.462	154 (61.6)	0.018
Female, n (%)	32 (26)	89 (29.6)		96 (38.4)	
<i>Clinical manifestations</i>					
Bloating, n (%)	51 (41.5)	104 (34.6)	0.180	NA	NA
Vomiting, n (%)	15 (12.2)	44 (14.6)	0.513	NA	NA
Abdominal pain, n (%)	53 (43.1)	116 (38.5)	0.190	NA	NA
Fever, n (%)	47 (38.2)	75 (24.9)	0.006	NA	NA
<i>Laboratory studies</i>					
Mucus in stools, n (%)	47 (38.2)	93 (30)	0.146	NA	NA
Bloody stools, n (%)	8 (6.5)	20 (6.6)	0.958	NA	NA
Creatinine above 1.5 (mg/dL), n (%)	104 (84.6)	247 (82.1)	0.537	17 (6.8)	0.008
Leukocytes in stools, n (%)	86 (69.9)	144 (47.8)	<0.001	NA	NA
Leukocytes ($\geq 12\,000/\text{mm}^3$), n (%)	61 (49.6)	138 (45.8)	0.483	60 (24)	<0.001
<i>Risk factors</i>					
Albumin below 3 g/dL, n (%)	71 (57.7)	165 (54.8)	0.585	55 (22)	<0.001
Age (above 64 years), n (%)	26 (21.1)	64 (21.3)	0.977	57 (22.8)	0.717
Hospitalization, (above 7 days) n (%)	27 (22)	65 (21.6)	0.912	104 (41.6)	<0.001
Hospitalization in the last 12 weeks n, (%)	41 (33.3)	79 (26.2)	0.142	30 (12)	<0.001
Intensive care unit stay, n (%)	18 (14.6)	63 (20.9)	0.876	14 (5.6)	0.003
Comorbidities, n (%)	79 (64.2)	190 (63.1)	0.830	190 (63.1)	0.830
Kidney failure, n (%)	14 (4.7)	37 (12.3)	0.794	12 (4.8)	0.019
Diabetes mellitus, n (%)	35 (28.5)	68 (22.6)	0.201	44 (17.6)	0.016
Autoimmune disease, n (%)	3 (2.4)	3 (1)	0.254	0 (0)	0.013
High blood pressure, n (%)	35 (28.5)	74 (24.6)	0.408	56 (22.4)	0.200
Cirrhosis of the liver, n (%)	1 (0.8)	8 (1.0)	0.859	4 (1.6)	0.534
Solid tumor, n (%)	12 (9.8)	23 (7.6)	0.473	24 (9.6)	0.962
Pneumonia, n (%)	14 (11.4)	45 (15)	0.335	19 (7.6)	0.227
Pancreatitis, n (%)	1 (0.8)	9 (3.0)	0.180	5 (2.0)	0.392
Abdominal surgery, n (%)	29 (23.6)	116 (38.5)	0.003	60 (24)	0.928
Previous surgery, n (%)	84 (68.3)	226 (75.1)	0.152	156 (62.4)	0.717
<i>Medications</i>					
Proton pump inhibitors	111 (90.2)	253 (84.1)	0.097	197 (78.8)	0.006
Immunosuppressants	18 (14.6)	33 (11)	0.292	11 (4.4)	0.001
Chemotherapy (6 weeks earlier)	3 (2.4)	1 (0.3)	0.042	1 (0.4)	0.072
Antibiotic use	96 (78)	211 (70.1)	0.097	146 (58.4)	<0.001
More than 5 days of antibiotics	53 (43.1)	89 (26.6)	0.098	10 (4)	<0.001
Tigecycline	4 (3.3)	33 (11)	0.011	9 (3.6)	0.863
Colistin	4 (3.3)	6 (2)	0.438	2 (0.8)	0.077
Clindamycin	33 (26.8)	51 (16.9)	0.020	45 (18)	0.049
Vancomycin	10 (8.1)	14 (4.7)	0.159	6 (2.4)	0.010
Metronidazole	21 (17.1)	53 (17.6)	0.895	17 (6.8)	0.002
Ceftriaxone	60 (48.8)	107 (35.5)	0.011	78 (31.2)	0.001
Cefepime	2 (1.6)	5 (1.7)	0.979	3 (1.2)	0.737
Cephalothin	2 (1.6)	3 (1)	0.586	17 (6.8)	0.033
Meropenem	27 (22)	68 (22.6)	0.886	19 (7.6)	<0.001
Amikacin	7 (5.7)	18 (6)	0.909	4 (1.6)	0.028
Ciprofloxacin	8 (6.5)	10 (3.3)	0.140	9 (3.6)	0.206
Levofloxacin	3 (2.4)	7 (2.3)	0.944	6 (2.4)	0.982
Piperacillin / tazobactam	10 (8.1)	20 (6.6)	0.588	8 (3.2)	0.037

Table 2 (Continued)

Variable	Surgical patients with CDI (n = 123)	Surgical patients with diarrhea and negative PCR (controls-1) (n = 301)	p	Surgical patients with no diarrhea (controls-2) (n = 250)	p
Trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole	1 (0.8)	5 (1.7)	0.502	2 (0.8)	0.989
Fluconazole	5 (4.1)	2 (0.7)	0.013	0 (0)	0.001
Rifampicin	3 (2.4)	9 (3)	0.756	3 (1.2)	0.371
Linezolid	7 (5.7)	32 (10.6)	0.110	7 (2.8)	0.167
Outcome					
Associated mortality	6 (4.9)	Unknown		Unknown	9 (4.4)

Table 3 Variables of importance in the distribution of surgical cases with CDI according to ribotype.

Variable	Ribotype 027(n = 65, 52.8%)	Other ribotypes(n = 58, 47.2%)	p
Median age (years) (range)	47 (15-86)	44 (15-86)	0.322
Male	50 (77)	41 (70.7)	0.537
Female	15 (23)	17 (29.3)	
Laboratory test			
Bloody stools, n (%)	7 (10.8)	1 (1.7)	0.042
Medications			
Immunosuppressants, n (%)	5 (7.7)	13 (22.4)	0.021
Amikacin, n (%)	1 (1.5)	6 (10.3)	0.035
Outcome			
Associated death, n (%)	2 (3.1)	4 (6.9)	0.382

Table 4 Logistic regression analysis of the significant variables and p value below 0.02.

Variable	OR	95% confidence interval	p
Mucus in stools	1.59	1.22 – 2.06	0.001
Fever	1.43	1.08 – 1.88	0.011
Leukocytes in stools	3.25	2.44 – 4.33	<0.001
Hospitalization within the past 12 weeks	2.08	1.60 – 2.70	<0.001
Antibiotic use	1.37	1.04 – 1.80	0.023
More than 5 days of antibiotics	1.55	1.14 – 2.12	0.006
Ceftriaxone	1.46	1.09 – 1.94	0.010
Tigecycline	0.454	0.25 – 0.83	0.011

Discussion

CDI is mainly associated with healthcare services that affect the adult population in both the medical and surgical services. The authors of a recent study stated that 36% of CDI cases in 2015 were patients with a history of surgery, 7% of which were abdominal surgeries.¹³

In our study, the patients hospitalized in the surgical services, especially in neurosurgery, were documented as having a high risk for developing CDI, as reported in the literature.

Surgical patients are susceptible to exposure to the risk factors described for the development of CDI in the adult patient, which are prophylactic antibiotics, older age, a higher number of immunosuppressed patients requiring

transplantation, orthopedic procedures for prosthesis placement, and intestinal surgery.^{2,14–18} The 027 strain is linked to different results in patients with CDI. According to the results of a Canadian multicenter study that included 12 hospitals, the authors found that the percentage of affected patients coming from surgical services was below 32.9%, compared with the 56.1% from the medical service wards. It should be mentioned that, for their study, the *C. difficile* 027 strain was already circulating.¹⁵

For example, in a study that included 134 hospitals and 468,386 procedures, in which CDI was looked for after a surgery, a CDI rate of 0.4 per year was found, with differences between hospitals (rates from 0.04 to 1.4%) and between surgical specialties (from 0.0 to 2.4%). The risk factors in that study population were: advanced

age, hospitalization after surgery, and treatment with > 3 antibiotics.¹⁶

Knowledge of the particular risk factors for the surgical patient is crucial for early diagnosis, adequate treatment, and prevention.

The problem of the association between the patient undergoing neurosurgery and CDI was recently reviewed. Those patients are often admitted to the intensive care unit for close surveillance due to the diversity of complications that can present and are exposed to the risk of developing healthcare-associated infections. A total of 1.9% of patients have been reported to develop CDI after subarachnoid hemorrhage.¹⁹

As in our study, patients in cardiac surgery services are affected by CDI. They frequently present with concomitant diseases, receive antibiotics for long periods of time, are admitted to a specialized intensive care unit, and undergo procedures with multiple instrumentation. Incidence of CDI development in patients in cardiac surgery has been reported at 0.75%.⁹

Surgical patients in the orthopedics service are at risk for acquiring CDI due to underlying disease and prolonged preoperative hospital stay. In our study, those patients were documented as susceptible to developing CDI. An increase in CDI and prophylactic strategies employing amoxicillin combined with clavulanic acid in orthopedic services was an effective decision for reducing the mortality rate by 80% in cases of CDI.²⁰

Despite the fact that CDI is an emergent infection, according to the U. S. Centers for Disease Control (CDC), little is known of its epidemiology in the surgical services in Mexico. In previous studies on Mexican patients with CDI-induced diarrhea, the problem was not specifically examined in surgical patients.^{21–25}

Compared with reports in the medical literature, our surgical patients with CDI had a higher frequency of leukocytes in stools than the surgical patients with negative PCR (69.9 versus 47.8%). The search for leukocytes in stools is not recommended, given that it has 30% sensitivity, 74.9% specificity, 13.2% positive predictive value, and 89.3% negative predictive value, compared with the enzyme immunoassay for toxin A or B, signifying that a patient with CDI can mistakenly go untreated if the fecal leukocyte test is negative.²⁶

Antibiotic use was shown to be a risk factor for acquiring CDI ($p=0.023$) in our study, and the risk was greater if the antibiotic was administered for more than 5 days ($p=0.006$). In addition, ceftriaxone was found to be a risk factor for developing CDI in the surgical services (OR: 1.46, $p=0.010$). Those findings have been well-studied and there are programs on adequate antibiotic use in surgical services to control CDI. Not using preoperative prophylaxis with antimicrobials, eliminating the use of antibiotics that are high-risk for CDI, and using low-risk antibiotics, such as amoxicillin with clavulanic acid, has been proposed.^{12,20,27,28}

A common finding has been the use of proton pump inhibitors, which in our study were administered in 90.2% of the surgical cases of CDI versus 78.8% of the controls-2 ($p=0.006$), suggesting that the use of H₂ antagonists or proton pump inhibitors should be reduced.^{6,8,29,30}

The above-stated results on risk factors could be considered comparable to those from a study on a Mexican population with CDI by Pérez-Topete et al. They reported the previous use of antibiotics (83%) and the use of PPIs (54%), as the main risk factors for CDI. The most commonly used antibiotic in their study was ciprofloxacin. However, they did not discriminate between community-acquired CDI and hospital-acquired infection and the sample size was small ($n=55$).³¹

Education, especially about the risk factors for CDI, is important for controlling said nosocomial infection. Implementing programs for adequate antimicrobial use (Antimicrobial Stewardship) in surgical services to control CDI is frequently discussed.³² In addition, there are numerous guidelines that provide recommendations for the prevention and control of CDI. In 2007, in the United Kingdom, the "High Impact Intervention No. 7" care bundle came out and its measures, such as rational antimicrobial use and contact precautions as basic strategies, were later reiterated in European and U.S. guidelines.³³

The participation of surgical services is indispensable for implementing strategies to combat CDI, such as early surgical management, adequate application of antimicrobial prophylaxis in surgery, and consensus guidelines on the diagnosis and management of CDI in their communities.^{34–38} Several Mexican authors have commented on the above in an attempt to raise awareness, and different articles have stressed the obligation physicians have to increase their knowledge of CDI and practice strict surveillance of the high-risk population. In other words, it is time for us to be concerned about *C. difficile* in Mexico.³⁹

Among the limitations of the present study was the lack of cultures for *C. difficile*, the limited use of colonic imaging, colonoscopy, and autopsies. Another limitation was not knowing the etiology of hospital-acquired diarrhea that was negative for *C. difficile* and that could have been secondary to other conditions, such as osmotic diarrhea (caused by tube feeding) or drug-induced diarrhea.

Conclusions

In conclusion, patients hospitalized in the surgical services of our hospital, especially in neurosurgery, presented with a high risk for developing CDI. The present study confirmed previous antibiotic use, antibiotic use longer than 5 days, ceftriaxone use, and prior hospitalization as risk factors for acquiring CDI.

Financial disclosure

No financial support was received in relation to this study.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare that there are no conflicts of interest.

References

1. Magill SS, Edwards JR, Bamberg W, et al. Multistate point-prevalence survey of health care-associated infections. *N Engl J Med.* 2014;370:1198–208.

2. Gerding DN, Olson MM, Peterson LR, et al. Clostridium difficile-associated diarrhea and colitis in adults. A prospective case-controlled epidemiologic study. Arch Intern Med. 1986;146:95–100.
3. Olson MM, Shanholtzer CJ, Lee JT Jr, et al. Ten years of prospective Clostridium difficile-associated disease surveillance and treatment at the Minneapolis VA Medical Center, 1982-1991. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 1994;15:371–81.
4. Aquina CT, Probst CP, Becerra AZ, et al. High Variability in Nosocomial Clostridium difficile Infection Rates Across Hospitals After Colorectal Resection. Dis Colon Rectum. 2016;59:323–31.
5. Harries RL, Ansell J, Codd RJ, et al. A Systematic Review of Clostridium difficile Infection Following Reversal of Ileostomy. Colorectal Dis. 2017;19:881–7.
6. Rodrigues MA, Brady RR, Rodrigues J, et al. Clostridium difficile infection in general surgery patients; identification of high-risk populations. Int J Surg. 2010;8:368–72.
7. Kim MJ, Kim BS, Kwon JW, et al. Risk factors for the development of Clostridium difficile colitis in a surgical ward. J Korean Surg Soc. 2012;83:14–20.
8. Yasunaga H, Horiguchi H, Hashimoto H, et al. The burden of Clostridium difficile-associated disease following digestive tract surgery in Japan. J Hosp Infect. 2012;82:175–80.
9. Flagg A, Koch CG, Schiltz N, et al. Analysis of Clostridium difficile infections after cardiac surgery: epidemiologic and economic implications from national data. J Thorac Cardiovasc Surg. 2014;148:2404–9.
10. Abdelsattar ZM, Krapohl G, Alrahmani L, et al. Postoperative burden of hospital-acquired Clostridium difficile infection. Infect Control Hosp Epidemiol. 2015;36:40–6.
11. Bulstrode NW, Bradbury AW, Barrett S, et al. Clostridium difficile colitis after aortic surgery. Eur J Vasc Endovasc Surg. 1997;14:217–20.
12. Carignan A, Allard C, Pepin J, et al. Risk of Clostridium difficile infection after perioperative antibacterial prophylaxis before and during an outbreak of infection due to a hypervirulent strain. Clin Infect Dis. 2008;46:1838–43.
13. Velarde Ruiz-Velasco JA, Aldana-Ledesma JM, Ibarra-Estrada MA, et al. Clinical and endoscopic features in patients with hospital-acquired diarrhea associated with Clostridium difficile infection. Rev Gastroenterol Mex. 2017;82:301–8.
14. Samore MH, DeGirolami PC, Tlucko A, et al. Clostridium difficile colonization and diarrhea at a tertiary care hospital. Clin Infect Dis. 1994;18:181–7.
15. Loo VG, Poirier L, Miller MA, et al. A predominantly clonal multi-institutional outbreak of Clostridium difficile-associated diarrhea with high morbidity and mortality. N Engl J Med. 2005;353:2442–9.
16. Li X, Wilson M, Nylander W, et al. Analysis of Morbidity and Mortality Outcomes in Postoperative Clostridium difficile Infection in the Veterans Health Administration. JAMA Surg. 2016;151:314–22.
17. Messick CA, Hammel JP, Hull T. Risk Factors that Predict Recurrent Clostridium difficile Infections in Surgical Patients. Am Surg. 2017;83:653–9.
18. Bovonratwet P, Bohl DD, Malpani R, et al. Incidence, Risk Factors, and Impact of Clostridium difficile Colitis Following Primary Total Hip and Knee Arthroplasty. J Arthroplasty. 2018;33:205–10.
19. Dasenbrock HH, Bartolozzi AR, Gormley WB, et al. Clostridium difficile Infection After Subarachnoid Hemorrhage: A Nationwide Analysis. Neurosurgery. 2016;78:412–20.
20. Gulihar A, Nixon M, Jenkins D, et al. Clostridium difficile in hip fracture patients: prevention, treatment and associated mortality. Injury. 2009;40:746–51.
21. Camacho-Ortiz A, Galindo-Fraga A, Rancel-Cordero A, et al. [Factors associated with Clostridium difficile disease in a tertiary-care medical institution in Mexico: a case-control study]. Rev Invest Clin. 2009;61:371–7.
22. Camacho-Ortiz A, Lopez-Barrera D, Hernandez-Garcia R, et al. First report of Clostridium difficile NAP1/027 in a Mexican hospital. PLoS One. 2015;10:e0122627.
23. Cruz-Rodriguez NC, Hernandez-Garcia R, Salinas-Caballero AG, et al. The effect of pharmacy restriction of clindamycin on Clostridium difficile infection rates in an orthopedics ward. Am J Infect Control. 2014;42:e71–3.
24. Morfin-Otero R, Garza-Gonzalez E, Aguirre-Diaz SA, et al. Clostridium difficile outbreak caused by NAP1/BI/027 strain and non-027 strains in a Mexican hospital. Braz J Infect Dis. 2016;20:8–13.
25. Tamez-Torres KM, Torres-Gonzalez P, Leal-Vega F, et al. Impact of Clostridium difficile infection caused by the NAP1/RT027 strain on severity and recurrence during an outbreak and transition to endemicity in a Mexican Tertiary Care Center. Int J Infect Dis. 2017;65:44–9.
26. Reddymasu S, Sheth A, Banks DE. Is Fecal Leukocyte Test a good predictor of Clostridium difficile associated diarrhea? Ann Clin Microbiol Antimicrob. 2006;5:9.
27. Valiquette L, Cossette B, Garant MP, et al. Impact of a reduction in the use of high-risk antibiotics on the course of an epidemic of Clostridium difficile-associated disease caused by the hypervirulent NAP1/027 strain. Clin Infect Dis. 2007;45 Suppl 2: S112–21.
28. Aldeyab MA, Kearney MP, Scott MG, et al. An evaluation of the impact of antibiotic stewardship on reducing the use of high-risk antibiotics and its effect on the incidence of Clostridium difficile infection in hospital settings. J Antimicrob Chemother. 2012;67:2988–96.
29. Krapohl GL, Morris AM, Cai S, et al. Preoperative risk factors for postoperative Clostridium difficile infection in colectomy patients. Am J Surg. 2013;205:343–7, discussion 347–8.
30. Damle RN, Cherng NB, Flahive JM, et al. Clostridium difficile infection after colorectal surgery: a rare but costly complication. J Gastrointest Surg. 2014;18:1804–11.
31. Pérez-Topete SE, Miranda-Aquino T, Hernández-Portales JA. Valor predictivo positivo de la prueba de inmunoanálisis para detección de toxina A y B de Clostridium difficile en un hospital privado. Rev Gastroenterol Mex. 2016;81:190–4.
32. Stites SD, Cooball CA, Aronovitz J, et al. The tipping point: patients predisposed to Clostridium difficile infection and a hospital antimicrobial stewardship programme. J Hosp Infect. 2016;94:242–8.
33. Álvarez-Hernández DA, González-Chávez AM, González-Hermosillo-Cornejo D, et al. Perspectivas históricas y vigentes sobre la infección por Clostridium difficile. Rev Gastroenterol Mex. 2018;83:41–50.
34. Napolitano LM, Edmiston CE Jr. Clostridium difficile disease: Diagnosis, pathogenesis, and treatment update. Surgery. 2017;162:325–48.
35. Ferrada P, Callcut R, Zielinski MD, et al. Loop ileostomy versus total colectomy as surgical treatment for Clostridium difficile-associated disease: An Eastern Association for the Surgery of Trauma multicenter trial. J Trauma Acute Care Surg. 2017;83:36–40.
36. van der Wilden GM, Velmahos GC, Chang Y, et al. Effects of a New Hospital-Wide Surgical Consultation Protocol in

- Patients with *Clostridium difficile* Colitis. *Surg Infect (Larchmt)*. 2017;18:563–9.
37. Balch A, Wendelboe AM, Vesely SK, et al. Antibiotic prophylaxis for surgical site infections as a risk factor for infection with *Clostridium difficile*. *PLoS One*. 2017;12:e0179117.
 38. Crowell KT, Julian KG, Katzman M, et al. Compliance with *Clostridium difficile* treatment guidelines: effect on patient outcomes. *Epidemiol Infect*. 2017;145:2185–92.
 39. Remes-Troche JM. *Clostridium difficile*-associated diarrhea infection: is it time for us to start worrying in Mexico? *Rev Gastroenterol Mex*. 2012;77:58–9.